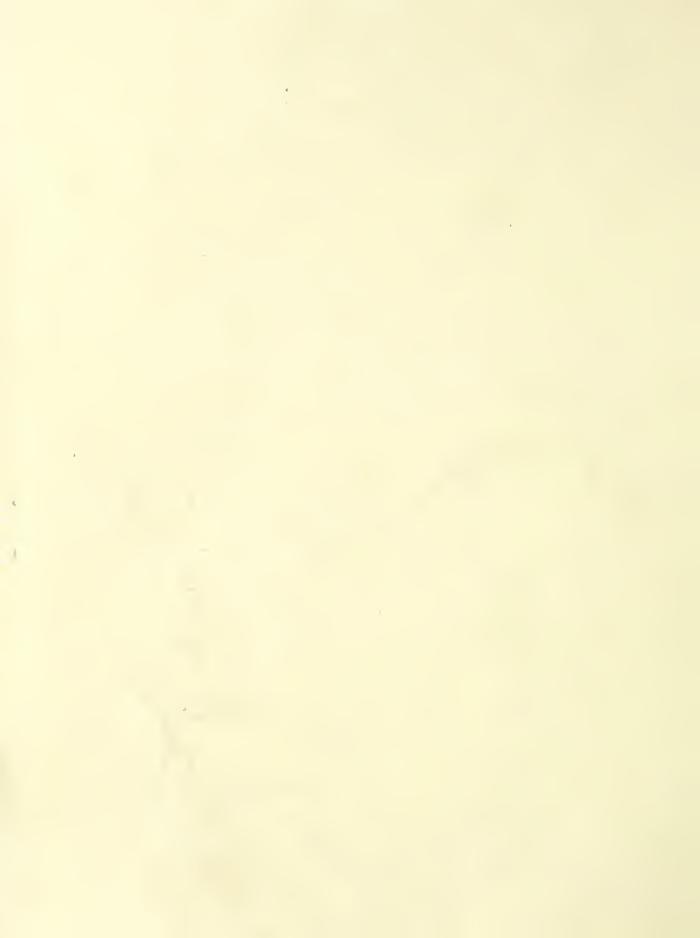
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family Consumer and Food Economics Research Division Agricultural Research Service UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

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FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW is a quarterly report on research of the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division and on information from other sources relating to economic aspects of family living. It is developed by Dr. Emma G. Holmes, research family economist, with the cooperation of other staff members of the Division. It is prepared primarily for home economics agents and home economics specialists of the Cooperative Extension Service.

NUTRIENTS FROM A DOLLAR'S WORTH OF FOOD, NORTHEAST REGION

A dollar's worth of food used by low-income families provided higher average returns in calories and nutrients than a dollar's worth used by high-income families in the Northeast Region in spring 1965. Despite the high nutrient returns for their food dollar, the low-income families more often had diets that failed to meet the Recommended Dietary Allowances, 1/partly because they did not spend as much for food. 2/Families with incomes under \$3,000 used food with an average money value per person of \$1.17 a day, about one-third less than the \$1.74 average of families with incomes of \$10,000 or more.

A food dollar of families with incomes under \$3,000 provided, on the average, about 1/6 more ascorbic acid, 1/4 more protein, and at least 1/3 more of the other nutrients studied than a food dollar of families with incomes of \$10,000 and over. The nutrients from a dollar's worth of food used by families at three income levels are shown in table 1.

Table 1.--Nutrients provided by a dollar's worth of food, $\frac{1}{2}$ urban households at 3 levels of income after taxes, Northeast Region, spring 1965

Nutrient and unit	Under \$3,000	\$5,000 to \$6,999	\$10,000 and over
Food energycal Proteing	2,430	2,240	1,840
	83	77	65
	870	800	650
	16	14	11
	7,330	6,130	4,760
	1.2	1.1	.9
	1.9	1.8	1.4

I/ Includes food bought at prices reported by households, and foods homeproduced or received as pay or gift (including federally donated) valued at retail prices.

A higher average return in nutrients per food dollar for low-income families may not necessarily mean they consciously chose more nutritious foods than families with high incomes. A diet that is low in cost usually includes some foods that are bought in large amounts for the money spent. Fortunately, several of these foods—such as en-

^{1/} RECOMMENDED DIETARY ALLOWANCES, 6th ed., Food and Nutrition Board, National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council, 1964.

^{2/} DIETARY LEVELS OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE UNITED STATES, SPRING 1965--A Preliminary Report, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, ARS 62-17. 34 pp. 1968.

Table 2.--Distribution of the food dollar, urban households at 3 levels of income after taxes, Northeast Region, spring 1965

Titem				
Percentage of each dollar for Percent Percent Percent All food 100.0 100.0 100.0 Milk, cream, cheese 12.9 13.2 11.4 Fluid milk 7.3 7.9 6.5 Nonfat dry and evaporated milk 1.0 6 .2 Cream, ice cream	Item		to	and
All food	Value of all food per person per day	\$1.17	\$1.42	\$1.74
Milk, cream, cheese 12.9 13.2 11.4 Fluid milk 7.3 7.9 6.5 Nonfat dry and evaporated milk 1.0 .6 .2 Cream, ice cream 1.8 2.2 2.4 Cheese 2.6 2.4 2.1 Meat, poultry, fish 32.3 34.1 35.2 Beef 11.7 13.7 15.6 Pork 7.5 7.4 6.3 Liver .7 .4 .4 Lunch meat, frankfurters 3.0 3.8 2.3 Poultry 4.9 3.8 3.8 Fish, shellfish 2.8 2.6 3.5 Other protein foods 5.7 4.5 3.8 Eggs 3.5 2.6 2.4 Dry beans 5 .4 .2 Vegetables 12.7 11.0 11.0 Potatoes, white 2.2 2.0 1.8 Fresh 1.7 1.4 1.1 Dark green, deep yellow 1.8 1.3 1.2	Percentage of each dollar for	Percent	Percent	Percent
Fluid milk 7.3 7.9 6.5 Nonfat dry and evaporated milk 1.0 .6 .2 Cream, ice cream 1.8 2.2 2.4 Cheese 2.6 2.4 2.1 Meat, poultry, fish 32.3 34.1 35.2 Beef 11.7 13.7 15.6 Pork 7.5 7.4 6.3 Liver 7.5 7.4 6.3 Liver 3.0 3.8 2.3 Poultry 4.9 3.8 2.3 Poultry 4.9 3.8 3.8 Fish, shellfish 2.8 2.6 3.5 Other protein foods 5.7 4.5 3.8 Eggs 3.5 2.6 2.4 Dry beans .5 .4 .2 Vegetables 12.7 11.0 11.0 Potatoes, white 2.2 2.0 1.8 Fresh 1.7 1.4 1.1 Dark green, deep yellow 1.8 1.3 1.2	All food	100.0	100.0	100.0
Beef 11.7 13.7 15.6 Pork 7.5 7.4 6.3 Liver .7 .4 .4 Lunch meat, frankfurters 3.0 3.8 2.3 Poultry 4.9 3.8 3.8 Fish, shellfish 2.8 2.6 3.5 Other protein foods 5.7 4.5 3.8 Eggs 3.5 2.6 2.4 Dry beans .5 .4 .2 Vegetables 12.7 11.0 11.0 Potatoes, white 2.2 2.0 1.8 Fresh 1.7 1.4 1.1 Dark green, deep yellow 1.8 1.3 1.2	Fluid milk Nonfat dry and evaporated milk Cream, ice cream	7.3 1.0 1.8	7.9 .6 2.2	6.5 .2 2.4
Eggs	Beef	11.7 7.5 .7 3.0 4.9	13.7 7.4 .4 3.8 3.8	15.6 6.3 .4 2.3 3.8
Potatoes, white 2.2 2.0 1.8 Fresh 1.7 1.4 1.1 Dark green, deep yellow 1.8 1.3 1.2	Eggs	3.5	2.6	2.4
	Potatoes, white Fresh Dark green, deep yellow	2.2 1.7 1.8	2.0 1.4 1.3	1.8 1.1 1.2
Fruit 7.8 7.0 7.8 Citrus, fresh 1.5 1.1 1.0 Citrus juices, frozen4 .6 1.1	Citrus, fresh	1.5	1.1	1.0
Grain products 12.8 12.7 11.5 Flour, cereals 3.8 3.2 2.2 Bread 3.7 3.6 2.7 Other bakery products 4.0 4.7 5.0	Flour, cerealsBread	3.8 3.7	3.2 3.6	2.2
Fats, oils	Sugars, jelliesSoft drinks, punchesAlcoholic beverages	2.7 2.5	2.5 3.3	2.2
leavening agents) 5.2 3.6 3.6	leavening agents)	5.2	3.6	3.6

Subgroups may not add to group totals because not all subgroups are listed.

riched flour and bread, cereals, dry beans, and potatoes--furnish substantial amounts of some nutrients. A small part of the food used by the low-income families--representing about 5 percent of total calories--was federally donated foods. In general, these are foods that give high nutritive return per \$1 of value.

Urban families with incomes under \$3,000 distributed their food dollars differently than those with incomes of \$10,000 or more. More of the food dollar of low-than of high-income families was used for fluid milk, nonfat dry and evaporated milk, and cheeses; pork, liver, poultry, eggs, and dry beans; fresh white potatoes, dark-green and deep-yellow vegetables, and fresh citrus fruits; flour, cereals, and bread; and fats and oils, sugars and jellies; and such foods as coffee, tea, seasonings, and leavening agents (table 2). Less of each food dollar of low- than of high-income families was used for beef; frozen vegetables and frozen citrus juices; bakery products other than bread; soft drinks and punches; and alcoholic beverages.

Many families with incomes under \$3,000 had diets that did not meet recommended allowances. Their diets were most often below allowances for calcium, vitamin A value, and ascorbic acid (table 3). A third of these families had diets rated "poor"--that is, below two-thirds of the allowance for one or more nutrients. These nutrients were usually ascorbic acid and vitamin A value.

Table 3.--Households with diets meeting and below two-thirds of Recommended Dietary Allowances 1/, low- and high-income urban households 2/, Northeast Region, spring 1965

	Diets meetin	g allowances	Diets below 2	/3 allowances
Nutrient	Low- High- income families families		Low- income families	High- income families
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Protein	84 58 82 65 85 88 66	98 76 92 82 94 96 94	3 11 5 16 2 2 18	0 5 1 3 1 0
All 7 nutrients Any of 7 nutrients	38	62 -	- 32	- 8

^{1/} Allowances set by the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Academy of Sciences--National Research Council, 1964.

2/ Low incomes--under \$3,000 after taxes; high incomes--\$10,000 or more.

If low-income families had more to spend for food, they could obtain good diets by using many of the economical sources of nutrients that are part of their present food patterns and additional amounts of such good sources of calcium, vitamin A value, and ascorbic acid as milk and milk products, vegetables, and fruit.

--Betty Peterkin and Constance Ward

SPENDING FOR NONFOOD ITEMS IN GROCERY STORES 1/

The total on the cash register tape at the grocery store no longer tells how much families are spending for food. The annual survey of grocery store sales, conducted by Conover-Mast Publications, shows that one-fourth of the amount spent in grocery stores in 1966 was for nonfood items. The following shows how total grocery store sales of \$64.7 billion that year were divided among foods and nonfoods:

	Share of total sales in 1966
Food items	Percent
Total	74.6
Meat, poultry, and fish	26.5
Eggs	1.0
Dairy products	6.9
Fruits and vegetables	17.9
Cereal and bakery products	9.1
Nonalcoholic beverages	5.1
Other foods	8.1
Nonfood items	
Total	25.4
Alcoholic beverages	4.9
Tobacco	3.8
Health and beauty aids	3.1
Soaps and laundry supplies	2.5
Housewares and household supplies	2.1
Paper products and foil	1.6
Pet food	. 9
Magazines, books, records	. 3
Other nonfood items	6.2

^{1/} From USDA's NATIONAL FOOD SITUATION, NFS-122, Nov. 15, 1967; based on data from the 20th Annual Consumer Expenditures Study of Grocery Store Products, conducted by Conover-Mast Publications, Inc., New York, and reported in FOOD TOPICS, Sept. 1967.

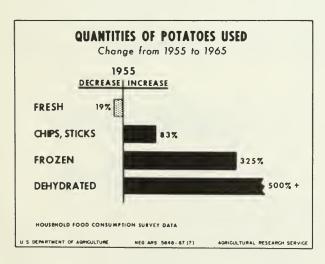
CHANGING PATTERNS OF POTATO CONSUMPTION

U.S. households used about the same quantity of potatoes per person a week in spring 1965 as in spring 1955. The average was about 7 3/4 medium-sized potatoes—slightly more than one potato a day—both years, according to two nationwide food consumption surveys of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Although the quantity of potatoes did not change, however, the form in which they were used did. In 1955, about 7 potatoes were used fresh and the equivalent of 3/4 potato was used in processed form—frozen, dehydrated, canned, chips, or sticks. In 1965, about 5 3/4 potatoes were used fresh and 2 in processed form.

Households spent about 2.5 cents of each food dollar on potatoes in the 1965 survey week, compared with 2.0 cents in 1955. The amount spent per person averaged 22 cents and 15 cents a week in the respective years. The higher expenditure for potatoes in 1965 reflects both higher prices and the purchase of more processed items. Families paid an average of 10 cents a pound for fresh potatoes in 1965—up from 7 cents in 1955—and 14 cents a pound (fresh equivalent) of processed potatoes, down from 18 cents.

The figures illustrate the following changes in potato consumption between 1955 and 1965:

- The quantity of fresh potatoes used per person in a week dropped 19 percent (fig. 1). The quantity of chips and sticks per person increased 83 percent. Frozen and dehydrated products gained even more than that, but were still a small part of total potato consumption.
- The percentage of households using fresh potatoes during a week declined from 91 to 84 percent (fig. 2). Households using chips and sticks increased from 20 to 26 percent; frozen potatoes from 4 to 12 percent; and dehydrated potatoes from less than 1 to 6 percent.



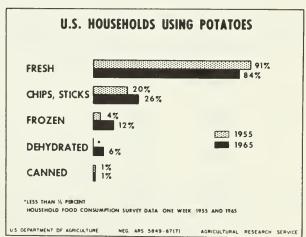


Figure 1

Figure 2

JUNE 1968

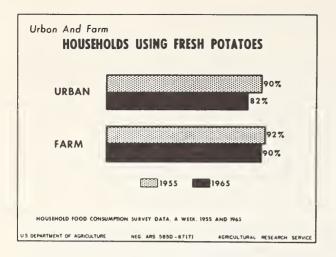


Figure 3

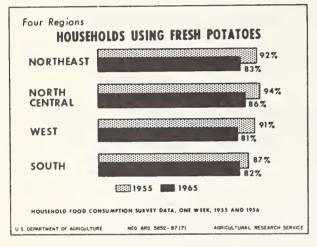


Figure 5

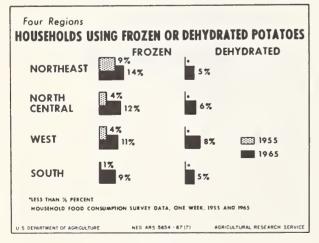


Figure 7

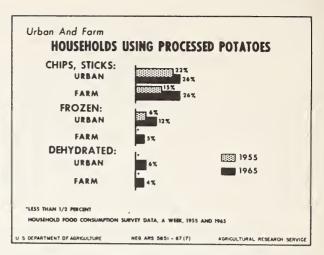


Figure 4

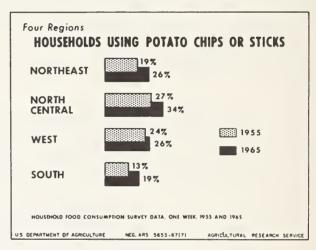


Figure 6

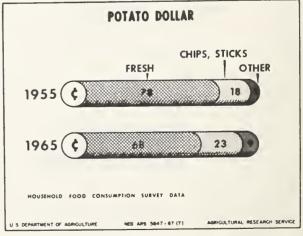


Figure 8

- Relatively more urban than farm families dropped fresh potatoes from their meals (fig. 3). During the 1965 survey week 82 percent of the urban families used fresh potatoes, compared with 90 percent of the farm families.
- Relatively more farm than urban families added processed potatoes to their diets (fig. 4). In 1955, fewer farm than urban families used each of the processed items. By 1965 as large a proportion of farm as urban families used chips and sticks. Farm families were also catching up in use of frozen and dehydrated potatoes.
- In every region a smaller proportion of households used fresh potatoes in 1965 than in 1955 (fig. 5). The proportion using fresh potatoes was slightly larger in the North Central than in other regions in both survey weeks.
- The proportion of households using potato chips and sticks increased in every region (fig. 6). In 1965 as in 1955, relatively more households in the North Central and fewer in the South than in other regions used chips and sticks.
- Households using frozen and dehydrated potatoes during the survey week increased in each region (fig. 7). However, in 1965 they were still a small part of the total. The Northeast was ahead of other regions in the proportion using frozen potatoes and the West was ahead in using dehydrated forms.
- Households spent 68 cents of every potato dollar on fresh potatoes in 1965, compared with 78 cents in 1955 (fig. 8). About one-third of the potato dollar went for processed items in 1965. Most of this was for chips and sticks.

In summary: U.S. homemakers used about as many potatoes in family meals in 1965 as in 1955—an average of more than one potato per person a day. However, they used more of these potatoes in processed form in 1965 than a decade earlier. They also spent a little more of each food dollar for potatoes.

Source: From a paper by Faith Clark and Betty Peterkin, presented at the 17th National Potato Utilization Conference, June 1967. Data from U.S. Department of Agriculture, HOUSEHOLD FOOD CONSUMPTION SURVEY 1955, Rpt. 1-5, 1956; and HOUSEHOLD FOOD CONSUMPTION SURVEY 1965-66, Rpt. 1, 1968, and unpublished data.

THE YEARS AHEAD: FOCUS ON CONSUMERS

Many evidences of new interest in consumer issues are appearing or re-emerging. A few of these are: The naming of several cabinet-level officials to the President's Committee on Consumer Interests, giving additional status to this group; the increasing recognition by State governments and Federal agencies of their responsibilities to consumers; increasing activity and membership among private organizations; and greater numbers of and interest in consumer courses at all levels. It seems fitting, therefore,

to consider the issues and problems consumers are likely to be concerned with in the years just ahead, and their meaning for consumer education and research. This paper discusses briefly some issues arising from such conditions as the increasing urbanization, mobility, and youthfulness of the U.S. population; rising consumer incomes; the increasing number and complexity of consumer goods and services on the market; the depersonalization of the market; and the increasing interdependence of nations.

Consumer Issues and Areas for Attention

Need to rethink ethics of consumption. -- An estimated three-fourths of the U.S. population will soon be living in urban areas. In such a highly urbanized society, consumption must take place in a setting of closeness to others. People both as individuals and as a society will need to give increasing consideration to ways of reducing noise, fumes, litter, and other byproducts of their consumption activities that impinge on their neighbors.

Need to cope with increasingly complex market. -- The function of consumers as buying agents for households will become even more generalized than it is now, as the number and variety of goods and services on the market increase and the income consumers have to buy goods rises. Consumers will have to make decisions about so many items they cannot possibly have specialized information about all of them. At the same time, the selling side of the market situation undoubtedly will become more specialized --in advertising, selling, and promotional techniques.

<u>Need to clarify values</u>. --As their buying functions become more complex, consumers will need to be honest with themselves and think through carefully the values and goals that guide their decisions. Otherwise, they may be too easily influenced in their buying by sales pressures.

Need to consider giving. --Consumers are going to face important decisions about how much and what types of giving they want to support. The question will be how much of their private consumption they are willing to give up to contribute to peace at home and abroad. This will involve gifts for domestic relief and developing nations, both by public means (taxation) and private giving.

Need to consider public vs. private consumption.—Consumers will have to give more thought to which goods and services should be privately acquired and used and which provided by public means. Such decisions must be guided by considerations of how these can be provided at the lowest real cost, and what the longtime needs of society will be. An example is the need for setting aside public lands for play areas and parks, resulting from the increased urbanization. In any event, consumers will have to be concerned with public as well as private decisions. This means they will need to use their right to vote, so that the people most likely to act in accordance with their views are elected.

Need to relate present to future decisions. -- As goods become more complex and require more specialized service for repair and even maintenance, consumers must

recognize more than ever before that their decisions today will affect those of the future. For example, deciding to buy an automatic washing machine this year commits one to future expense for repairs and maintenance if the washer is to be used and enjoyed. This precommitment of spending, then, restricts choices in other areas of future spending.

Relation to consumers in other countries.—As countries become more interdependent, U.S. consumers will need to be concerned about such matters as (1) the effect of tariffs on potentials for growth in other countries as well as on prices at home, (2) standardization of sizes and terms used for consumer goods in international commerce, and (3) the effect of the quality of consumer goods we send abroad on international relations.

Need to appraise resource use and cost. -- The rates at which the various consumer resources--money, time, energy, skill, and interests--can be substituted for each other will have to be constantly reevaluated as incomes rise, goods on the market change, and opportunities to learn expand. For example, because of rapidly changing conditions, consumers will need constantly to reevaluate the relative importance of saving time in buying and saving money by searching the market.

As part of their appraisal of resource use, consumers may need to sharpen their figuring of costs of owning goods by counting as part of this cost what they could have earned in interest if they had saved or invested an amount equal to the purchase price. This type of calculation will be especially important in their decision to buy or to rent-houses and major durable equipment, for example. The option to lease, as an alternate to ownership, is likely to become important for more and more goods.

Need to know legal rights.—In the years ahead consumers will be involved in more and increasingly complex contractual arrangements. They will need to be aware of their legal rights and responsibilities, and know when to consult legal experts.

Need to make likes and dislikes known. --As markets become more impersonal and direct communication between consumer and decision-making personnel in the market becomes more limited, consumers may need to initiate--through group action or other means--ways to make their likes and dislikes constructively known. Although such communication is finally worked out through the market, it is only with a good bit of lag and then not perfectly.

Some Implications for Consumer Education and Research

The issues discussed above indicate some areas that may well be stressed in consumer education and research. In education, concepts basic to effective functioning of consumers in a complex and changing economy will need to be developed and emphasized —for example, decision making and criteria for choice. If consumer education is to have lasting value, it must focus on concepts that provide a frame of thinking for consumers to use in approaching a problem—essentially an application of the scientific method. Decision making should, perhaps, have higher priority in teaching than "how to buy" information, though both are important.

In research, there will be a continued need for research on consumer products and for studies of broad problems such as decision making and factors affecting consumer decisions; types of and "best" levels for consumer education; factors affecting use of consumer credit; effects of consumer credit on families; and effects of taxes on consumer spending and well-being.

Because of the broad range and many-dimensioned nature of consumer concerns, the need for cooperation among professional people in many disciplines in consumer education and research will increase.

--Gordon E. Bivens

COST OF FOOD AT HOME HAS A NEW BASE

Beginning with this issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW, the cost of food at home estimated for the USDA food plans is to be based on data from the 1965 Household Food Consumption Survey. This replaces the 1955 base that has been used since 1957.

The costs for March 1968 in table 1 are based on the mix of items within each food group used by families interviewed in the spring of 1965. The costs given in table 2 are calculated on the old base—the mix of items bought by those interviewed in spring 1955. The latter table is included to show how the new figures compare with the old.

The quantities of the 11 food groups used in estimating the costs of the low-cost, moderate-cost, and liberal plans were the same for both tables. These quantities are given in the October 1964 issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW. Prices per pound of the 11 food groups were developed for the three plans by using as a base the average quantities and money values of food used by households at low-, medium-, and high-income levels--\$2,000 to \$3,000, \$5,000 to \$6,000, and \$9,000 to \$10,000. $\frac{1}{2}$ The prices paid by the survey families were adjusted to the March 1968 level by use of the change in prices indicated in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' RETAIL FOOD PRICES BY CITIES. $\frac{2}{2}$

Estimates for the regions are prepared once a year. Regional costs for December 1967, which were calculated on the 1955 base for the March 1968 issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW, have also been calculated on the 1965 base. Single copies of these new regional costs are available free from the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Federal Center Building, Hyattsville, Md. 20782.

^{1/} Data are from FOOD CONSUMPTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE UNITED STATES, SPRING 1965; U.S. Dept. of Agr., Household Food Consumption Survey 1965-66, Rpt. No. 1. 1968. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, for \$1.25.

^{2/} U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. ESTIMATED RETAIL FOOD PRICES BY CITIES. 9 pp. March 1968.

Table 1.--Cost of food at home estimated for food plans at 3 cost levels,

March 1968, U.S. average 1/

(1965 Base)

,	Со	st for 1 we	ek	Cost for 1 month			
Sex-age groups 2/	plan	Moderate- cost plan	Liberal plan	plan	Moderate- cost plan		
FAMILIES	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	
Family of 2: 20 to 35 years 3/ 55 to 75 years 3/ Family of 4: Preschool children 4/	16.40 13.40 23.90	20.90 17.50 30.30	25.60 20.90 36.90	71.30 58.40	90.50 75.40 131.50	110.90 90.40 159.50	
School children 5/ INDIVIDUALS 6/	27.70	35.40	43.30	120.30	153.30	187.60	
Children, under 1 year 1 to 3 years 3 to 6 years 6 to 9 years Girls, 9 to 12 years 15 to 20 years 15 to 55 years 75 years and over Pregnant Nursing Nursing 15 to 75 years 55 to 75 years 75 years and over 15 to 75 years 75 years and over	3.20 4.10 4.90 5.90 6.70 7.60 8.10 9.30 6.90 5.60 5.60 8.00 7.40 6.60 6.20	4.00 5.10 6.20 7.60 8.70 9.60 9.50 8.80 10.60 11.80 8.80 8.50 7.30 6.50 10.30 11.90 10.20 9.50 8.60 8.20	4.50 6.10 7.50 9.40 10.10 11.60 11.30 10.60 12.60 14.20 10.60 10.20 8.70 7.90 12.10 13.90 12.70 11.50 10.30 9.90	13.80 17.70 21.00 25.60 29.10 32.10 32.80 29.90 35.00 40.20 30.00 28.80 24.50 22.20 35.80 41.50 34.70 32.20 28.60 26.80	17.40 22.20 27.00 32.80 37.50 41.60 41.20 38.30 45.80 51.00 38.20 36.70 31.50 28.00 44.50 51.40 44.10 41.00 37.00 35.60	19.40 26.40 32.30 40.70 43.80 50.10 48.90 46.10 54.40 61.40 45.80 44.10 37.50 34.20 52.50 60.00 54.90 50.00 44.70 42.90	

^{1/} Estimates computed from quantities in food plans published in FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW, October 1964. Costs of the plans were first estimated by using average price per pound of each food group paid by urban survey families at 3 income levels in 1965. These prices were adjusted to current levels by use of Retail Food Prices by Cities, released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

^{2/} Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.
3/ 10 percent added for family size adjustment. For derivation of factors for adjustment, see Family Food Plans and Food Costs, USDA, HERR No. 20.

^{4/} Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; children 1 to 3 and 3 to 6 years.

5/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; child 6 to 9; and boy 9 to 12 years.

Costs given for persons in families of 4. For other size families, adjust thus: 1-person, add 20 percent; 2-person, add 10 percent; 3-person, add 5 percent; 5-person, subtract 5 percent; 6-or-more-person, subtract 10 percent.

Table 2.--Cost of food at home estimated for food plans at 3 cost levels,

March 1968, U.S. average 1/

(1955 Base)

	Co	st for 1 we	ek	Cost for 1 month			
Sex-age groups 2/	Low-cost plan	Moderate- cost plan	Liberal plan	plan	Moderate- cost plan		
FAMILIES	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	
Family of 2: 20 to 35 years 3/ 55 to 75 years 3/ Family of 4:	15.80 13.20	21.10 17.80	24.60 20.40	68.60 57.10	91.50 77.30	106.40	
Preschool children 4/ School children 5/	23.20 26.70	30.80 35.70	35.70 41.60	100.40	133.40 154.50	154.30	
individuals 6/							
Children, under 1 year 1 to 3 years 3 to 6 years 6 to 9 years 6 to 9 years 12 to 15 years 15 to 20 years 75 years and over Pregnant Nursing Men, 20 to 35 years	3.20 4.10 4.70 5.70 6.50 7.50 6.60 7.60 8.90 6.80 6.50 5.60 5.10 8.10 9.30 7.60	4.10 5.30 6.30 7.60 8.70 9.60 9.80 8.90 10.50 11.90 9.00 8.60 7.50 6.70 10.50 12.00 10.20	4.40 6.00 7.30 9.00 9.80 11.10 10.20 11.90 13.60 10.30 9.90 8.50 7.80 11.80 13.30 12.10	13.80 17.60 20.50 24.60 28.30 31.00 32.40 28.80 33.10 38.70 29.30 24.00 21.90 35.20 40.30 33.10	17.90 22.80 27.50 32.90 37.80 41.80 42.40 38.50 45.50 51.50 38.90 37.40 32.50 29.00 45.40 52.10 44.30	19.20 26.00 31.50 39.20 42.30 48.20 47.90 44.20 51.60 58.80 44.50 43.00 36.90 33.80 51.00 57.60 52.30	
35 to 55 years 55 to 75 years 75 years and over	7.10 6.40 6.00	9.50 8.70 8.40	11.00 10.00 9.60	30.80 27.80 26.10	41.20 37.80 36.40	47.70 43.10 41.60	

^{1/} Estimates computed from quantities in food plans published in FAMILY ECO-NOMICS REVIEW, October 1964. Costs of the plans were first estimated by using average price per pound of each food group paid by nonfarm survey families at 3 income levels in 1955. These prices were adjusted to current levels by use of Retail Food Prices by Cities, released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

2/ Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.

^{2/} Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.
3/ 10 percent added for family size adjustment. For derivation of factors for adjustment, see Family Food Plans and Food Costs, USDA, HERR No. 20.

^{4/} Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; children 1 to 3 and 3 to 6 years.

5/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; child 6 to 9; and boy 9 to 12 years.

^{6/} Costs given for persons in families of 4. For other size families, adjust thus: 1-person, add 20 percent; 2-person, add 10 percent; 3-person, add 5 percent; 5-person, subtract 5 percent; 6-or-more-person, subtract 10 percent.

WHAT CONSUMERS KNOW ABOUT MEAT 1/

What do consumers know about meat inspection and grading? This is one of the questions the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the National Livestock and Meat Board set out to find answers to in a survey early in 1967. The survey included 776 rural and urban households throughout the Nation (except Alaska and Hawaii). It provides information on consumer attitudes and opinions about beef, fresh pork, ham, chicken, and other meats.

Meat inspection. --Answers to questions about inspection and grading of meat indicated that some homemakers did not clearly understand these terms. First the homemakers were asked if, as far as they knew, the meat they bought was inspected. To this question 92 percent said "yes," less than 1 percent said "no," and the rest either did not know or did not buy meat. Then, those who said "yes" were asked, "What does this inspection mean to you?" A majority (73 percent) of them gave answers that showed they correctly related inspection to wholesomeness, but 45 percent incorrectly connected it with quality or grading, and 2 percent didn't know. The reason these answers total more than 100 percent is that some homemakers (about one in four) related inspection to both wholesomeness and quality.

Meat grading.--To find out what homemakers knew about meat grading, they were first asked whether, as far as they knew, pork and beef were graded. Their replies were as follows:

Replies	Is pork graded? Percent	Is beef graded? Percent
Yes, it is	50	86
No, it isn't	6	1
Don't know, don't buy	44	13

Those who said that beef was graded were also asked what this grading meant to them. Most of the homemakers correctly related grading to quality, but some of these also incorrectly related it to wholesomeness or price. Confusion about grading is reflected in their replies:

Meaning of grading	Percent of replies
Quality (general)	70
Quality (specific characteristics given, such as tenderness	
or juiciness, amount of fat, taste, or flavor)	28
Wholesomeness	31
Price range	13
Inspection	12
Don't know	6

^{1/} Weidenhamer Margaret, Knott, Edward M., and Sherman, Lorna R., HOMEMAK-ERS' OPINIONS ABOUT SELECTED MEATS, A PRELIMINARY REPORT; U.S. Dept. of Agr., Statis. Rpt. Ser., SRS-12, March 1968.

Grade names. --Consumers showed considerable confusion about the names used to designate USDA grades of beef. They were given cards listing the five true grade names (Prime, Choice, Good, Standard, and Commercial) and five incorrect names (USDA No. 1 and No. 2, Grades A and AA, and First Cut). They were asked if there were any grade labels on the list that they had seen or heard of. Only about one-fifth selected true grade names and no others, as the following summary shows:

Replies on grade identification	Percent of consumers
True grade names only	21
Both true and false grade names	63
False grade names only	. 6
Don't know, none of them	10

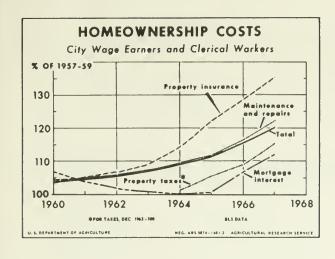
<u>In summary.</u>—The data indicate that many consumers are confused about inspection and grading. Although most homemakers correctly stated that the meat they buy is inspected and that beef is graded, about one-half incorrectly stated that pork is graded. Many confused grading and inspection with each other. This raises a question as to which statements about inspection and grading were based on knowledge and which on misinformation.

More to come.—The report from which this material was taken is based on first-quarter interviews in a year—long study. It gives information about practices in the buying, storage, preparation, and use of meat, as well as about inspection and grading. Later reporting will give data from a much larger number of consumers. It will also relate the data to such factors as income, education, age, and family size.

HOMEOWNERSHIP AND RENT IN THE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX

Between 1960 and 1964, the cost of homeownership and rent for urban wage earners and clerical workers increased at about the same rate as the all-items Consumer Price Index--about 1 percentage point a year (see table). Beginning in 1964, however, rents have risen less rapidly and homeownership costs more rapidly than the all-items index. In 1967, the index for rents was 112, for homeownership 120, and for all items 116 (1957-59 = 100).

Homeownership costs. -- The index of homeownership costs is based on maintenance costs, mortgage interest, property taxes, property insurance, and home purchase costs. The chart shows trends between 1960 and 1967 in each of these except home purchase costs, for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) does not publish separate data.



Property insurance rates increased most sharply--29 percent. In addition to the higher rates, larger insurance policies to cover increased home values also were reflected in the index. But because insurance is a small expenditure compared with the other ownership costs, its rise had little effect on the homeownership index. In the December 1967 index, the five ownership costs had the following relative importance (expressed as percentages of the homeownership index): Insurance 3, property taxes 13, mortgage interest 21, maintenance and repairs 22, and home purchase 41.

Home purchase costs and property taxes together rose a little less than the total homeownership index, according to BLS. Nevertheless they had a major part in forcing the index up. The rise in the price of homes reflects higher prices for land and used homes and higher construction costs. Property taxes rose as local governments needed more revenue.

Following a period of decline, mortgage interest rates rose 11 percent between 1965 and 1967 due to the tight money market. This accounts for much of the more rapid increase in the homeownership index during these 2 years. Maintenance costs have about kept pace with the homeownership index, but have risen a little faster recently.

Consumer Price Index: Annual averages for all items, rent, and homeownership (1957-59 = 100 except as noted)

			Homeownership Maintenance Mortgage Property Proper					
Year	All items	Rent	Total	Maintenance and repairs	Mortgage interest rates	Property insurance rates	Property taxes 3/	
1960 1961 1962 1963 1964 1965 1966	103.1 104.2 105.4 106.7 108.1 109.9 113.1 116.3	103.1 104.4 105.7 106.8 107.8 108.9 110.4 112.4	103.7 104.4 105.6 107.0 109.1 111.4 115.7 120.2	103.5 105.0 105.8 107.2 109.4 111.7 116.4 122.3	106.7 103.9 102.0 100.8 100.1 100.5 106.9 112.0	104.6 105.1 105.8 108.9 114.4 122.2 128.8 135.4	(4/) (4/) (4/) (4/) 101.4 105.5 108.9 115.3	

^{1/} Includes home purchase and, before 1964, property taxes, not shown separately.

^{2/} First mortgages.

^{3/} December 1963 = 100.

^{4/} Not available.

Rent.—In general, the factors that make homeownership costs rise also increase rents. However, rents tend to adjust more slowly, hence the smaller gain in the index for rent since 1960. Leases account for some of the lag. Also, landlords may not pass on to their tenants all of the increased cost when the rental market is poor. Rental vacancy rates have been relatively high much of the time since 1960. They averaged 7.5 percent between 1960 and 1965, then dropped somewhat. In the third quarter of 1967, the vacancy rate was 6.4 percent.

Rent increases due to added services provided by landlords are not reflected in the rent index. BLS policy is to have the index show changes in the prices of goods and services of a specified quality.

--Lucie G. Krassa

RETIRED COUPLE'S BUDGET FOR A MODERATE LIVING STANDARD

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) has published a new Retired Couple's Budget, and priced it at an average of \$3,869 as of autumn 1966. This budget, a companion to the City Worker's Family Budget for a younger 4-person family, 1/is for a moderate standard of living for an urban family of two--a husband age 65 or over and his wife. They are presumed to be self-supporting and living independently, in reasonably good health and able to take care of themselves, and covered by hospital and medical insurance under the Medicare program. The budget provides for social well-being and participation in community activities as well as for maintenance of health.

The content of the Retired Couple's Budget is based on the manner of living and consumer choices in the 1960's. The selection of the goods and services included in it was based, where possible, on standards of adequacy as defined by scientists and experts and translated to reflect buying practices of families. Where such standards were not available, the budget items were based on analyses of consumption and spending of budget-type families as shown primarily by the 1960-61 Consumer Expenditure Survey.

BLS has estimated the cost in autumn 1966 of the Retired Couple's Budget for 39 metropolitan areas and for a sample of nonmetropolitan areas in each region, as well as for U.S. urban areas as a whole. Table 1 gives the U.S. averages and estimates for nonmetropolitan areas and three metropolitan areas in each region (the same areas for which costs of the City Worker's Family Budget were given in the March 1968 issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW). Not shown in this table but available in the BLS report are separate estimates for renters and homeowners (mortgage-free) in each area. The

^{1/} U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. CITY WORKER'S FAMILY BUDGET FOR A MODERATE LIVING STANDARD, AUTUMN 1966. U.S. Bur. Labor Statis. Bul. 1570-1. 1967. See March 1968 issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW for discussion of this budget.

Table 1.--Cost of Retired Couple's Budget. 1/ U.S. averages and nonmetropolitan areas and selected metropolitan areas in each region; autumn 1966 prices

				Famil	y Consum	ption			Gifts
Areas <u>2</u> /	Total budget 3/	Total 3/	Food	Housing	Cloth- ing	Trans- porta- tion	Medical care <u>5</u> /	Other 6/	and contri- butions
Urban United States:	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.
Total	3,869 4,006	3,637. 3,766	1,072 1,089	1,295 1,392	225 227	345 344	284 288	416 426	232 240
areas <u>8</u> /	3,460	3,252	1,023	1,004	216	346	274	389	208
Northeast: Lancaster, Pa Buffalo, N.Y New York, N.Y Nonmetropolitan	3,916 4,204 4,323	3,681 3,952 4,064	1,157 1,106 1,204	1,270 1,490 1,670	226 242 231	344 401 229	277 285 283	407 428 447	2 3 5 252 259
areas	3,833	3,603	1,135	1,212	225	355	276	400	230
North Central: Dayton, Ohio St. Louis, Mo Milwaukee, Wis Nonmetropolitan	3,771 3,939 4,083	3,545 3,703 3,838	1,030 1,101 1,036	1,247 1,314 1,498	232 221 234	364 393 374	274 277 277	398 3 97 419	226 236 245
areas	3,574	3,360	1,024	1,101	239	336	270	390	214
South: Austin, Texas Baton Rouge, La Washington, D.C Nonmetropolitan	3,53 ⁴ 3,486 4,044	3,322 3,277 3,801	990 1,016 1,061	1,095 968 1,423	194 203 223	363 401 385	284 275 283	396 414 426	212 209 243
areas	3,246	3,051	988	864	199	347	273	380	195
West: Bakersfield, Calif. Los Angeles, Long	3,786	3,559	1,024	1,215	218	389	314	399	227
Beach, Calif Honolulu, Hawaii Nonmetropolitan	3,991 4,434	3,752 4,168	1,037 1,286	1,337 1,502	224 214	399 427	331 287	424 452	2 3 9 266
areas	3,687	3,466	1,050	1,137	224	356	286	413	221

^{1/} The family consists of a retired husband and wife, age 65 or over.

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 $[\]overline{2}/$ The metropolitan areas included are those for which costs of the City Worker's Family Budget were given in the March 1968 issue of FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW.

^{3/} Totals represent the weighted average costs for renter families (35 percent) and owner families -- mortgage - free (65 percent).

^{4/} Includes shelter (weighted average cost of owners and renters), housefurnishings, and household operation.

^{5/} Includes out-of-pocket Medicare costs and other medical care costs.
6/ Includes personal care, reading, recreation, tobacco, alcoholic beverages, and miscellaneous. 7/ Includes all areas with a population of 1 million or more and a sample of metropolitan areas with population between 50,000 and 1 million.

^{8/} Places with population of 2,500 to 50,000.

Table 2.--Indexes of comparative living costs based on the Retired Couple's Budget, autumn 1966 1/

(U.S. urban average cost = 100)

Area	Total	Renters	Homeowners
Urban United States Metropolitan areas Nonmetropolitan areas	100 104 89	100 104 89	100 104 89
Northeast: Boston, Mass	111 109 112 101 112 104 101 106	108 107 112 100 108 101 102 102	113 110 113 102 114 105 101 109 99
Cedar Rapids, Iowa Champaign-Urbana, Ill. Chicago, IllNorthwestern Ind Cincinnati, Ohio-KyInd. Cleveland, Ohio Dayton, Ohio Detroit, Mich. Green Bay, Wis. Indianapolis, Ind. Kansas City, MoKans. Milwaukee, Wis. Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn. St. Louis, MoIll. Wichita, Kans.	102 104 103 97 104 97 99 105 100 106 103 102 99	103 105 105 98 107 100 103 96 105 101 104 103 102 100 93	102 103 101 97 102 96 97 100 105 99 106 102 102 99
South: Atlanta, Ga	93 91 100 90 94 93 94 96 95 105 84	95 95 101 92 95 94 97 100 106 83	91 90 100 89 93 93 96 93 104 84
West: Bakersfield, Calif Denver, Colo Honolulu, Hawaii Los Angeles-Long Beach, Calif San Diego, Calif San Francisco-Oakland, Calif Seattle-Everett, Wash Nonmetropolitan areas	98 101 115 103 99 108 110	98 100 124 106 100 110 112 95	98 101 110 101 99 106 109

 $[\]underline{1}$ / The family consists of a retired husband and wife, age 65 and over.

BLS report also gives budget costs for 27 additional metropolitan areas. The complete list of these areas appears in table 2.

The cost of the Retired Couple's Budget at autumn 1966 prices was highest for renters in metropolitan areas--\$4,127--and lowest for homeowners (mortgage-free) in smaller cities--\$3,404. This difference reflects not only variations in costs related to renting or owning a home, but also variations in transportation requirements and spending patterns for clothing, recreation, personal care, and other items between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas. Table 2 gives indexes of comparative living costs on all of the areas for which the budget was prepared.

BLS plans to publish spring 1967 prices for the Retired Couple's Budget for a moderate living standard, and also for a lower and a higher standard. In the future, estimates of cost of the three budgets will be made as of the spring of the year for the same areas included in the 1966 estimates.

The Retired Couple's Budget does not show how an "average" retired couple spends its money, or how it should spend its money. In general, the list of goods and services making up the standard reflects the collective judgment of families as to what is necessary and desirable to meet the needs of families of the budget type in the 1960's.

A full description of the budget and more detail on costs are given in the publication RETIRED COUPLE'S BUDGET FOR A MODERATE LIVING STANDARD. AUTUMN 1966, U.S. Bur. Labor Statis. Bul. 1570-4. 1968. This publication is for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for 35 cents.

DIFFERENCES IN PAY BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN WORKERS 1/

Average pay rates reported in surveys of occupational earnings are almost always substantially higher for menthan for women doing the same general type of work, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This does not necessarily mean, however, that men are getting more than women doing the same work in the same establishment. The survey averages are based on rates paid in many establishments with many pay levels. When the comparison is made within a single establishment, pay rates for men and women are much nearer alike.

<u>Differences among establishments.</u> -- The Bureau of Labor Statistics has compared wages of men and women in 11 occupations (four classes of clerks, three classes of tabulating machine operators, office boys and girls, elevator operators, janitors, and

^{1/} From an article by the same title, by Donald J. McNulty, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics; MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, December 1967, pp. 40-43.

shipping packers), from surveys in 84 metropolitan areas in 1965-66. Average earnings (all establishments) were higher for men than women in each occupation—from 5 percent higher for office boys to 44 percent higher for elevator operators. The largest difference noted was for elevator operators in the North Central Region, where the average was 53 percent higher for men than for women. This was largely because most of the women worked in retail establishments and hotels where wages for elevator operators were relatively low, while one-half of the men worked in higher-paying office buildings.

The wage advantage of men over women is especially great when the comparison is among establishments employing only one sex in the specific type of job. For example, men elevator operators in establishments hiring only men for this job averaged 54 percent higher pay than women operators in places hiring only women. Among establishments employing both men and women to operate elevators, average pay for men exceeded that for women by 14 percent.

Differences within establishments.—The earnings of men and women working in the average (median) establishment differed by 5 percent or less for all but one of the 11 occupations. Averages for women were the same as for men in three types of jobs, and higher for women in two types. Factors other than discriminatory pay practices may be the cause of such differences as do exist. Paying workers according to their length of service on the job is one such factor. Average length of service is often greater for men than women, so higher average pay rates for men might be expected. Also, the broad descriptions used to classify workers allow for minor differences in duties to be performed, and thus for some difference in pay. In janitorial work, for example, an establishment may have men doing the heavier tasks at one rate of pay and women doing the lighter tasks at a lower rate.

MARRIED WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

Today, married women (husband present) make up one-fifth of the labor force. Well over one-third (37 percent) of all wives--16 years old and over--were part of that force in March 1967, but the proportion varies according to their education and age, their children's ages, and the size of the husbands' income.

Wives with higher levels of education are more likely to be employed than others. Among wives 18 years old and over, 50 percent with a college education (16 years or more of schooling) and 40 percent with high school training (12 years) were working in March 1967, compared with only 19 percent of those with less than 5 years of schooling. Undoubtedly educated women have many more jobs open to them. Also, those who have invested time and money in education may feel a need and responsibility to use the knowledge and skills they have learned.

Wives are more likely to work outside the home after they have completed their families than while they are in the prime childbearing years and have youngsters to care for. In March 1967, wives 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 years old had higher labor force participation rates than other age groups—43 and 45 percent, respectively. Although the labor force participation rate of younger wives (25 to 34 years) was somewhat lower, it had increased more since 1960. The rate for this younger group rose from 28 to 35 percent—7 percentage points—while that of wives aged 45 to 54 rose from 41 to 45 percent—4 points. This recent increase in the number of younger married women workers has reversed the longtime upward trend in the median age of working wives. The median reached a high of 41.7 years in 1964, then fell off gradually to 41.3 years in 1967.

Among wives under 35 years old, about 65 percent with no children under 18 worked in March 1967, compared with 49 percent with children aged 6 to 17 and 26 percent with children under 6 years. Mothers of preschool children were more likely to work if there were older children or other female relatives present in the home. The data indicate that the more children a woman has, the shorter her worklife outside the home. A first child reduces her average worklife expectancy by about 10 years. Each additional child further reduces it by 2 or 3 years.

Although wives mention economic reasons more often than any other when asked why they are working, the wives whose husbands have the lowest incomes are not the ones with the highest labor force rates. About 40 percent of the wives whose husbands had incomes of \$3,000 to \$7,000 were in the labor force in March 1967, compared with 33 percent of those with husbands at lower or higher levels. The age of the wife and of her children made a difference here, too. For example, among wives 16 to 34 years old whose husbands' incomes were \$5,000 to \$7,000, 71 percent with no children under 18 worked, 52 percent with youngsters aged 6 to 17, and 31 percent with children under 6.

The number of wives who work some time during the year is considerably higher than the number working during the survey week in March. Almost one-half (47 percent) of all wives had some work experience in 1967. This was about one-fourth more than were working in March. This difference gives an idea of how much job turnover there is among married women. However, wives tend to be in the job market longer now than a decade ago.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, February 1968 and April 1968; SPECIAL LABOR FORCE REPORTS No. 13, 50, and 94.

SOME NEW USDA PUBLICATIONS

Single copies of the following are available free from the Office of Information, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250:

FAMILY FARE - Food Management and Recipes. HG No. 1. Revised 1968. PLANNING YOUR HOME LIGHTING. HG No. 138.

CONSUMER PRICES

Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers (including single workers)
(1957-59 = 100)

Group	April 1967	Feb. 1968	March 1968	April 1968
All items	1967 115.3 113.7 110.8 128.3 113.6 116.9 111.9 119.0 108.8 111.0 108.4 107.7 113.0 113.5 108.4 124.9 115.1 113.2 130.6 122.6 135.1 114.9	1968 119.0 117.4 114.2 133.3 116.9 120.8 113.9 123.5 109.8 113.8 109.3 111.2 116.6 116.8 112.4 129.1 118.6 116.4 136.2 127.5 141.9 117.6	1968 119.5 117.9 114.7 133.7 117.2 121.0 114.2 123.8 109.9 113.9 109.3 111.8 117.6 117.6 117.9 113.6 129.7 119.0 116.7 137.1 128.3 142.9 118.4	1968 119.9 118.3 115.1 134.4 117.5 121.3 114.4 124.0 110.0 119.5 112.2 118.4 119.2 114.5 130.4 119.0 116.8 137.2 128.8 143.5 119.0
Reading and recreationOther goods and services	119.4	123.0	124.2	124.9

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Item	May 1967	Dec. 1967	Jan. 1968	Feb. 1968	Mar. 1968	April 1968	May 1968
All items	112	114	115	115	116	117	117
Food and tobacco	-	115	-	-	117	-	-
Clothing	-	126	-	-	128	-	-
Household operation	-	114	-	-	115	-	-
Household furnishings	_	100	-	-	100	-	-
Building materials, house	-	109	-	-	111	-	-

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Reporting Service.